44th YEAR OF PUBLICATION

# SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND THEIR TEACHERS

SOME WEAK SPOTS IN TEACHING BY TV

LAND-GRANT COLLEGES' IMPROVED STATUS

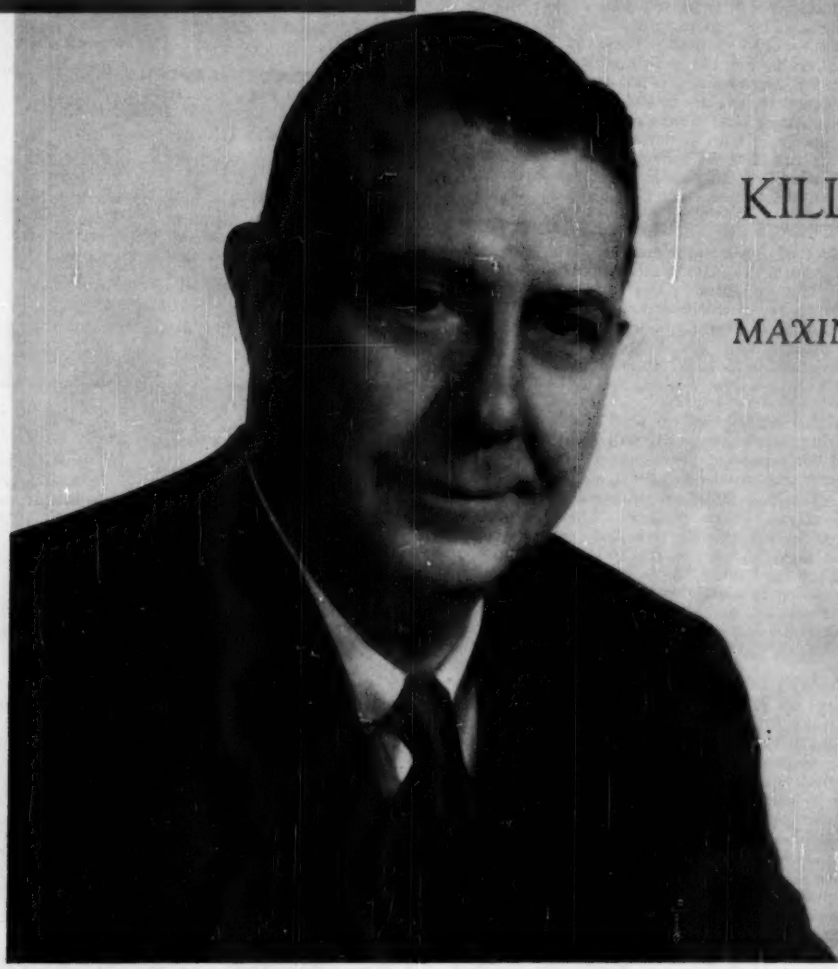
EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS IN NEW JAPAN

*March 15, 1958*

## Humanistic Missileman

## JAMES RHYNE KILLIAN, JR.

*A Profile By*
*MAXINE GREENE*



# Educational Ticker Tape

**If additional, detailed information is desired concerning news items in this column, write to SCHOOL AND SOCIETY'S Information Service, enclosing 50 cents for each item requested.**

## TWO-YEAR PH.D. FOR CHEMISTRY MAJORS

The two-year Ph.D. will be attained more frequently as the result of a program for specially qualified chemistry majors to begin in Sept. at Columbia College. Through annual enrollment of some 25 high-school graduates who have proven (by their total performance and by their scores on College Entrance Examination Board tests) that they qualify for advanced placement in chemistry, and through an undergraduate program for these students that is strong in chemistry, the door will be opened for excellent students to begin research for the doctorate in the senior year and eliminate lecture courses in graduate school.

According to Prof. Ralph S. Halford, executive officer, department of chemistry, the chemistry-laden program will heighten the emphasis on the humanities and social studies. In addition to language courses and the traditional 28 points of contemporary civilization and humanities, advanced electives will be required in the non-scientific disciplines. The program, which will produce graduates ready to begin full-scale chemical research in graduate school, calls for 144 points of credit as compared to the 126 points required of all students for graduation. Many chemistry majors at Columbia College regularly take this exceptional number of points, but, because they do not enter with advanced standing in chemistry, they never complete in college the sufficient classroom work in chemistry to enable them to begin full-time research immediately on entering graduate school.

## ARAB CONFERENCE ON TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Representatives of Arab states met in Cairo, Nov. 23-Dec. 5, to discuss technical education facilities in the Middle East. The conference was organized by the Egyptian government in collaboration with Unesco, the International Labor Organization, the Food and Agriculture Organization, and the League of Arab States. Representatives came from Iraq, Jordan, Libya, Lebanon, Morocco, Saudi Arabia, the Sudan, Syria, Tunisia, and Yemen.

The aim of the meeting was to work out methods for technical training which eventually will provide the personnel needed for economic development in these countries. Participants compared educational methods used in each country, examined the main problems, and decided on concerted action where possible. They asked the United Nations agencies what technical and non-technical assistance they can offer in this field. An exhibition shown during the conference illustrated the development of technical training in each country and the work being done by international organizations and by Arab and foreign commercial concerns interested in training programs. (UNESCO)

## FORD FOUNDATION GRANTS TO INDIA

To help step up the growth of small-scale industries throughout India, the Ford Foundation has granted $2,163,000 and $70,000 to the Ministry of Commerce and Industry. The development of small industries is a major feature of India's Second Five-Year Plan, inaugurated in 1956. It aims to increase the output of consumer goods for domestic use and export, to create new jobs, and to encourage individual manufacturing enterprise. In addition to the present funds, the foundation's grants for small-industries development in India total $4,300,000.

The development program consists of four main regional small-industries institutes, which are somewhat comparable to agricultural extension centers and which provide technical, managerial, financial, and marketing advice to small producers in their areas. Besides the building of small-scale industries service institutes in each of

*(Continued on page 140)*

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**MARCH 15, 1958**

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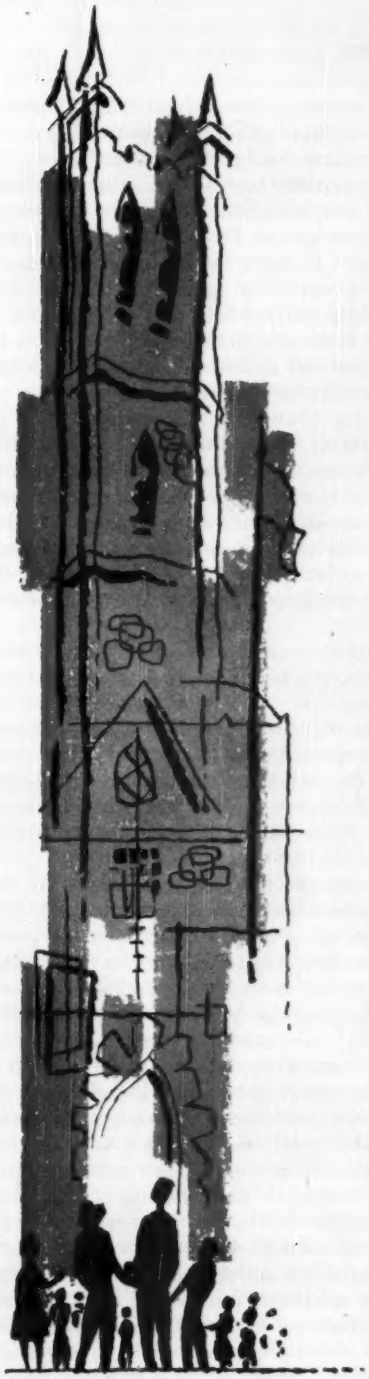
***Education's National Biweekly***



## SELECTED READINGS IN THE PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION

*by* JOE PARK, *Northwestern University*

A scholarly presentation of the major philosophies of education, this provocative text provides substantial portions of some of the best known works of distinguished authors in the field. Discriminate and challenging, the readings are carefully selected to reveal a clear, significant point of view and are systematically organized according to the philosophical position of the authors. Catholic, Protestant and Jewish philosophies of education are explored.

*Coming Spring 1958*

## AN INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY OF COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

*by* VERNON MALLINSON, *University of Reading, England*

Built upon the belief that education is the expression of a nation's traditions and aspirations, this text examines the historical, political and sociological aspects of education in the main European countries, the United States and Russia. The author compares, contrasts and explains varying methods and purposes of the different educational systems.

*1957, 249 pages, $3.50*

## THE FUNDAMENTALS OF PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION, Fourth Edition

*by* WARD G. REEDER, *Emeritus, The Ohio State University*

Analyzing the urgent and recurring problems found in the administration of the local school system, the fourth edition provides a significant coverage of school systems, both rural and urban, from the point of view of the school board members, school superintendents, principals and teachers. Professor Reeder's highly successful text has been thoroughly revised and rewritten to include pertinent up-to-date references, statistics, and illustrations.

*Coming Spring 1958*

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# Secondary Schools and Their Teachers

By ERNEST STABLER
Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn.

THE AMERICAN PUBLIC appears to be ready for a return to a secondary school curriculum based on the liberal arts and sciences. If this is true, those of us who wish to support the movement ought to clarify our position by attempting to answer two questions: What is the rationale behind our belief in a liberal arts curriculum? What are the characteristics of a teacher who can work effectively with that curriculum?

The case for the liberal arts may be based on two assumptions. The first is the belief that there is a body of knowledge and a set of understandings which a civilized society can legitimately expect all its members to possess. These never can be rigidly circumscribed and they do not remain static or timeless. Nevertheless, it is the responsibility of educators to examine both the present condition of their society and its cultural heritage and to determine the kind of knowledge and appreciations which will best prepare youth for life in that particular society. Under this point of view, a high-school student ought to grow familiar, to the full extent of his capability, with the classics of his literary tradition. He cannot become a responsible citizen if he is innocent of his country's history and unfamiliar with some of its deeper traditions. He will be ill-prepared for life in the 20th century without a knowledge of some of the basic principles of science and mathematics. His life will hold richer meaning if he learns to cherish aesthetic experience and to nurture his spirit through the arts. And, finally, there should be a new component in liberal education. The education that is appropriate for a free man, and that which will allow him to remain free, must recognize the social and political revolutions presently taking place in the world. The high-school student of today will be a world citizen tomorrow and his education ought to give him at least an awareness of his role. These various kinds of learning constitute a preparation for adulthood. They become, so to speak, the necessary qualifications which American society can require before admitting a youth into full membership.

The second assumption is that one of the aims of education should be the development in a young person of certain skills and abilities which will allow him to find greater meaning in his life. Consequently, education should strive to help the student to develop skill in thinking logically; to achieve proficiency in writing clearly; to learn how to handle abstract ideas; to grasp the nature of the scientific method and practice its use; to realize that some phases of human experience can be described in quantitative terms and to learn the use of mathematical tools and concepts; to gain insight into the forces that have molded history; to become familiar with both the best and the worst qualities of human nature and to find meaning in tragic experience; and to develop a critical judgment, a discriminating taste, and a sense of values in matters ranging from literature to morality. Thus, education becomes more than learning subject matter. It is, rather, the development through subject matter of a cluster of abilities and disciplines which give meaning to present experience and, to use the words of John Dewey, increase the capacity to direct the course of future experience.

It is in terms such as these that the advocate of the liberal arts argues his case. As an ordered and systematic record of human experience, as a vehicle for the development of skills necessary for the interpretation of experience, and as an avenue for the creation of sensitivities and appreciations which can enrich experience, the liberal disciplines are indispensable in the educative process.

In this way, the purpose and the role of the secondary school are more sharply defined. It is not attempting to meet all the needs of youth and it is not assuming functions that more rightly belong to the home, the social agency, and the training programs of business and industry. Nevertheless, the school recognizes that an adolescent cannot secure a liberal education through the curriculum alone. In addition, the school should provide a Department of Special Services, which will include medical examinations, health education, and an extensive program of athletics. A rich offering of special-interest clubs and hobby activities will be available. A longer school day and a revised notion of extracurricular activity will allow students voluntarily to secure instruction in home economics, business subjects, and the industrial arts. Music and dramatic groups will be sponsored and encouraged. Many of these activities will be related to, and will grow out of, the basic curric-

ulum and they will enrich a child's school experience. They will not take the place, however, of the required curriculum.

A program of liberal studies for all American youth poses a profound teaching problem: How can such studies be made meaningful to the "general," the non-academic student of average or less-than-average ability who has difficulty, when he reaches high school, in learning from books? The answer is not easily found, but a search for it can be made on several fronts. The reading program in the elementary school can be strengthened and enriched. Pupils with a reading disability need the help of experts in diagnosing their problem and following a course of remedial instruction. High-school teachers together with the publishing industry will have to search for the kind of books which will provide both meaning and challenge to the general student. A fair number of such texts are currently on the market; their language is appropriate, but their content often insults a student's intelligence. The teacher education institutions must bring the student teacher face to face with the problem of the general student. In course work, in seminars dealing with teaching methods, in educational psychology, and particularly in practice teaching, the teacher-in-training should have an opportunity to study in depth this kind of student. He should have an opportunity to observe teachers who are able to make literature, science, history, and the arts come to life and take on meaning in general classes, and he should do a stint of apprentice teaching in those classes. Through such experience the young teacher will grasp the astounding dimensions of the problem, but he may see, too, that under strong and virile teaching, by someone who understands him, the general student will respond. To win that response within the context of the liberal studies is the most difficult task facing secondary education, but it should be faced without escaping to vocationalism or "life adjustment."

And, similarly, we need to challenge much more deeply our more able students. Our commitment to providing education for all has led us to neglect the most able few. Only recently, through programs for gifted students and the project on Admission to College with Advanced Standing, a number of public high schools have started to deal forthrightly with the problem. Many others have done little. Their brighter students find satisfaction for their talents and energy only in extracurricular leadership or a part-time job. The principal of a large high school in the East has reported that 80-90% of his students have a job after school. Some work a full seven- or eight-hour shift. To a considerable degree, the school contributes to this by dismissing its pupils in the early afternoon and each day they stream out of school at 2:00 p.m. for jobs in stores and offices. Thus, school itself becomes a part-time activity and teachers have great difficulty in building quality and vigor into their courses. The talents of a gifted youth are precious; they should be cultivated fully in a school program that occupies his full time and attention.

If we are to build quality into secondary education, by deepening the lives of all students through the liberal disciplines, the quality and skill of the teacher are of prime importance. What, then, are some of the characteristics of the successful teacher?

The good teacher is genuinely interested, indeed excited, about his subject and has a strong urge to generate a similar excitement in others. Some of his curiosity to know and understand will be contagious. Whatever his subject may be, the good teacher is devoted to it and is constantly learning more about it. His mind is curious and alive and his enthusiasm is both evident and genuine. He never stops trying to light fires in his students.

The teacher who succeeds in generating in his students an excitement for learning will seek a rich and varied diet of intellectual nourishment outside the classroom. He will ally himself with those for whom literature, music, drama, and art have intrinsic meaning. In this sense he is an intellectual, but what we may call a consumer intellectual as distinct from the writers, artists, and poets who are the creators and producers of high culture—the "real" intellectuals, the professionals. The teacher of the stature we have in mind "consumes" the arts not simply because such experience will directly inform or enrich his teaching. His need or appetite is more personal than professional and he becomes a theatre-goer, for example, because of an intrinsic interest in drama rather than because of a concern for "professional growth."

Is it utopian to expect teachers, in the midst of the many demands they face, to retain their scholarly interests, to be of a scholarly mind? The teacher who faces five classes of adolescents each day, takes on an extracurricular assignment, keeps up with clerical details, and carries home a brief case of papers to mark has only a modest reserve of time and energy left for continued study and reading in his subject-matter field. And yet, this is precisely what he needs to do to keep himself intellectually alive. Whether he does it will depend largely on the kind of

education he had before he began to teach. If he had a rich and stimulating experience as an undergraduate, ranged deeply into one or two disciplines, caught something of the excitement and the rigors of scholarship, then it is likely that he will continue to grow during his years of teaching.

We must recognize, of course, that a teacher's satisfactions cannot be entirely or even largely intellectual. And here lies one of the deep ambivalences a teacher must live with. He must be concerned not only with ideas but with adolescents. He must accept the adolescent with all his imperfections, insecurities, and frustrations. He will make all possible efforts to understand his students as individuals and at the same time gain insights into adolescent culture. Through skill, humor, and warmth he will try to reach the adolescent, to get through to him, and to tune in on his wave length. He will avoid, however, the danger of becoming sentimentally involved in the problems of the teen-ager and will not descend into too easy or informal a relationship with his students. And herein lies one of the arts of teaching: a sensitivity and insight into human relationships which allow the teacher to develop warm and friendly relationships with his students while at the same time preserving his authority and sense of distance. If the teacher descends to the level of his pupils, he loses their respect and thus has little opportunity to make any real demand on them. The teacher who makes rigorous and challenging demands on his students does so partly out of respect for himself and his subject matter. But he also holds a deep respect for the child, and it is really because of this concern and respect that the teacher makes demands on the child.

It will be of great advantage to the teacher if he has some skills which he can use outside the classroom. If he can play football, or tennis, or baseball well, or if he can identify birds, trees, and insects and live comfortably in the woods, he is carrying with him an important bonus. On the other hand, he does not need to be a four-letter athlete or an outdoorsman. If he knows an art, a craft, or a hobby really well, his students will respect him and want to work with him. He then can enter into the extracurricular life of the school, whether it be in dramatics, music, photography, or birdwatching, and he soon will have his following. The point is that he should be able to do some of these things not just passably, or politely, but expertly. Young people feel a strong attraction for the adult whose knowledge is confident and precise, whose hands are deft, and whose skill is ready to be shared. But the skill must be of a high order, and the teacher who has at least one well-developed extracurricular talent is able to make a valuable contribution to the life of his students.

Finally, and perhaps most important, the teacher has to have a deep feeling of dedication, a strong sense of mission toward his chosen career. There ought to be deep within him a desire to make his life count for something and a belief that through teaching he can make an important social contribution. Sometimes, unfortunately, this sense of mission grows out of a kind of intellectual or sentimental humanitarianism. During their college days, often through courses in the social sciences, students become distressed over the state of the world and realize that through education conditions can be improved. They develop an entirely sincere desire to contribute to social advance through teaching, but they do not always stop to take a realistic look at the difficult job teaching really is, nor do they stop to think about their personal fitness for the role. In teaching, one's idealism has to be hard-headed.

How do we get teachers with this kind of idealism and the other qualities suggested above? One approach is to improve the quality of teacher education and to begin by selecting students with greater care. Then those of us who are involved in teacher preparation must offer students a stimulating, vigorous, and challenging experience. Every attempt should be made to bridge the long-existing dichotomy between professional training and liberal education. This cannot be done simply by offering the student two separate components: liberal arts courses and techniques for teaching them. There must be, rather, a constant attempt to give the student every opportunity and stimulation to integrate the several aspects of his program. He must constantly be challenged to plunge deeply into philosophic questions which relate to education, to master psychological theory and apply relevant phases of it to classroom teaching, and to develop insights into the nature of the adolescent.

Furthermore, at the same time that he is enriching and deepening his own knowledge, he should be searching for effective ways of teaching it. The student who accepts responsibility for achieving integration on lines such as these regards, for example, an introductory education course (Educational Thought from Plato to Dewey) both as part of his liberal education and as a phase of professional preparation. Similarly, if he is a history major, he enrolls in a seminar in American Political and Social

Thought, not only to learn more history, but to become a better history teacher. His liberal education is enriched by the added motivation of professional intent, and his professional training is enlightened through the liberalizing experience of theoretical speculation and rigorous inquiry.

Through more careful selection of students and more rigorous and stimulating programs of preparation we can do much to invigorate the teaching profession. And the quality of the profession will ultimately be the most compelling factor in persuading the American public that teachers should be both more highly regarded and better paid. Perhaps, in the long run, the way to ease the shortage of teachers is to take steps toward the improvement of teacher education.

# Some Weak Spots in Teaching by Television

By PAUL C. WERMUTH
Teachers College of Connecticut, New Britain

IN THE CURRENT DISCUSSION of the use of television in college teaching, some highly optimistic and highly doubtful claims are being made by proponents of the idea. The dominant quality of these accounts of the glorious future of TV teaching is a kind of uncritical laudation; they have the over-assertiveness of the person who is not very sure of himself. This is in sharp contrast with the reports of actual TV experiments, which are strangely sedate and ambiguous, suggesting that it is not good policy to admit a year's work was productive of nothing.

It is time that some of the claims were examined and some rather obvious objections raised to the general idea of teaching by television. Those that follow, it should be added, are based not on any technical knowledge of the medium, but rather on some knowledge of teaching and of human beings.

First, some subjects are more easily adaptable to TV teaching than others, *e.g.*, factual subjects and courses in which the transmission of information is of chief importance. On the other hand, any subject in which the development of independent thinking and judgment is necessary would be less effectively done. In these, personal contact with an intelligent teacher is vital. Curiously, the TV proponents seem to assume that all subject matter is essentially the same, seeing no difference between the acquisition of knowledge and the development of thought.

If education consisted only in the acquisition of knowledge, then the teacher—and the college, too—would be superfluous. All that would be needed would be a group of researchers to gather facts and print them up into usable one-hour scripts which could easily be read, with appropriate gestures, by any professional announcer. In fact, TV may do education a great service in ridding the campus of much vocational nonsense that clutters it today, since these subjects would seem to be the most easily adaptable to the medium. On the other hand, TV might be quite useful for such things as permitting medical students to observe operations by famous surgeons. It is doubtful, however, if anyone will want to be operated on by an M.D. whose training has been achieved mostly by way of the TV screen.

Second, TV means a complete return to the lecture system of teaching. While this system is sometimes quite good and is still much used, it is most effective with a mature audience, requiring as it does interested listeners and an interesting speaker. But many teachers have found this system ineffective with most American students, who have been watching things most of their lives—movies, television, spectator sports. What they need is not more of the same, but something different, some method of forcing them to participate in the class and to formulate their ideas and thoughts. Apparently the very valuable and democratic discussion method will have to go by the board. Also, any personal contact with the teacher, as in the small class, will disappear.

The small class has taken a terrible beating at the hands of the TV enthusiasts; it is uneconomical, they say, and wasteful of the energies and talents of teachers. Of course, it is uneconomical; so is the college itself, which never has paid its way. But colleges are not supposed to be paying institutions—at least were not until recently, when a sudden passion to have everything pay for itself has appeared. Oddly enough, the TV setup still seems to require small rooms, since one cannot be too far away from the set to see it. The chief difference lies in eliminating the teacher, which most of the TV advocates seem to consider a potential blessing.

However, real education can occur only in a small class; the teacher and student must have a

fairly intimate relationship for the teacher to know the student's capabilities and the encouragement or deflation that he needs. The personal relationship itself is often the thing that brings on learning, for the teacher stands as the stimulator of his students, either to follow lines of suggested thought or to revolt against them. The point is to stimulate a reaction that in turn will lead to learning. Furthermore, the teacher needs the contact, too, since it forces him to a constant re-examination of his own ideas. Henry Adams was right in saying that it is impossible to teach anybody anything, if by this he meant that one always ultimately teaches oneself. The good teacher is one who is able to stimulate and direct the desire to teach oneself.

This student-teacher relationship, which lies at the heart of education, must disappear in a situation where teaching is done by TV. The professor has too many students to know even their names. The student is not able to question the professor's statements or to argue about disturbing points, and the teacher's own assertions may tend to become more facile. Thus, after a lifetime of passively accepting the assertions of advertisers, newscasters, and commentators, the TV-taught student will have the final seal of approval stamped on his uncritical education by the very institution which ought most to disapprove.

Furthermore, what will happen to the controversial when the classroom is thrown open to public view? Unorthodox discussions might well be toned down or dropped by good and stimulating teachers. One often-used teaching device is the shock technique, in which outrageous assertions are made in order to wake up the students and to stimulate discussion. Despite its effectiveness, this device might well disappear and its users be stifled by public pressure or pusillanimous administrators at considerable loss to education. In our pressure-group society, it would appear that the larger the audience, the more cautious one becomes in his statements or even in the subjects he mentions. In commercial TV now, even free speech is a controversial subject.

TV teaching would no doubt open up to college administrators a new weapon for the cowing or suppression of teachers. Second-rate administrators would like very much to have their hands more directly on the teacher's lifeline, to make him conform to their own ideas of education. I personally have known a college provost who kept files of derogatory information about his teachers, in case he needed to get rid of anyone who was troublesome to the administration. The picture of a secretary taking down one's chance remarks in class is not difficult to conceive in a world rapidly approaching 1984. No doubt the present privacy of the classroom helps many a good teacher retain his employment.

One of the largest dangers of TV teaching lies in the kind of teacher-personality it might produce. While the advocates of TV never tire of trumpeting that all students will have access to the best teachers, they fail to specify what is meant by "best" teachers or how they are to be picked. Ideas of quality in teaching vary so widely that it is obvious no objective criterion ever has been devised.

Practically speaking, the TV teacher in any given situation will be chosen by an administrator. And what is the usual administrative ideal? Popularity, of course; the best teacher is the one who attracts the most students. This is sometimes true, and such teachers are often first-rate; but often they are also quite bad. It is not difficult to foresee popularity as the ideal of the "good" teacher that will come to dominate TV teaching. A pleasing voice, well-brushed teeth, snappy dress—these and other such qualities may easily determine who gets the job.

The truth is that there are many kinds of good teachers who are quite valuable. There is simply no sure way to measure teaching, and the criteria now used—number of courses, or degrees, or years of experience, or amount of publication—are not an accurate index to the quality of the individual man or of his ability to communicate his vision to others. The best we can ask from a teacher, and it is a good deal, is intelligence, honesty, and mastery of his subject. But teaching itself is not measurable, a fact for which we should probably be grateful.

The better colleges and universities have always been those which encouraged diversity and variety in their faculty and did not attempt to dictate what good teaching was. The theory behind this is an eminently democratic one: that, by the presentation of divergent views, the seeker after truth has a greater chance of finding what he seeks. The too great use of TV in teaching may very likely reduce and eventually eliminate this variety, substituting for it a single, acceptable type which, while perhaps fairly good in itself, is only one of many good types.

The college teaching profession seems to be somewhat disturbed about the future, not only because of the possibility of technological unemployment, though this is very real. While the entrepreneurs of education, the professional administrators, may see in TV a golden opportun-

ity to teach ever-greater numbers of students for less money, and a means to professional advancement through their ability to "solve the teaching shortage," TV has least bewitched those who are most concerned—the teachers. After all, anyone who loves teaching his subject does so for very genuine reasons, and the students who come to him are among the important ones. Human contact with students must not be allowed to disappear just so somebody can save money. The prospect of talking at electronic devices instead of to people is appalling and in itself should be enough to drive most real teachers out of the profession.

Used intelligently, TV may add some valuable things to collegiate education, though of necessity they must be minor things. The essence of a good education will remain the same: personal contact with a variety of thinking men. The fear is that TV will be looked on as a panacea, an easy solution to economic problems. We shall have to face the unpleasant facts. If we insist on the current idea of a college education for everybody, then we must realize that this will cost tremendous sums of money; that there is probably not going to be any cheap solution; and that TV is not an adequate substitute for an education.

# EDUCATION FOR PEACE

By PAUL HOUNCHELL
Madison College, Harrisonburg, Va.

As a nation committed to education for all, with nearly 40,000,000 persons going to school each year, what shall we teach as to peace and war? Are we to use the schools as a part of total effort, keep them entirely free from war talk, or make some modifications and compromises? The answers to these questions carried into practice will settle the attitude of the next generation toward peace and war.

America will have to educate for what she wants as permanent policy. At present there is a great longing for peaceful pursuits. Yet, every right-thinking person knows we cannot have peace just by wishing for it. No thought of passive resistance will hold up, in light of what has happened to helpless nations who wanted peace as much as we ever can. Still, many honestly fear we cannot have peace by preparing to oppose those forces now rampant.

Education for the future is never easy. Educational statesmen must see into the future and make the younger generation ready for what they will meet. In facing the problem here stated, there is help in several directions within reach of the schools.

Some points for emphasis in a program of education are proposed. Each is a part of a policy that will continue through each youngster's school life. In combination they may be thought of as planks in a platform of education for peace for all children now in school.

*Build education on experience.* Doing things that have meaning is real life. Every step of growth for each child has to be gradual and related to his experience. Current happenings with local application give reality. The affairs of adults come in only as they matter to children. Preparation for living in later years comes through living in present stages of growth. Education for peace or defense is not different from other education in that experience with meaning is its one dependable basis.

*Achieve co-operation by living together.* Stimulation, purpose, meanings come to each learner from the help, approval, influence of others as he and they work out things together. Each child learns through his own efforts because of a sense of value felt as a personal need that fits in with the group undertaking. The culminating thing we call patriotism is readily built upon group interests of children of school age. A country to love and keep at peace or defend is found by the school child in his own unit of folks and things and actions.

*Develop democrats by democratic procedure.* Schools in America grew out of the need for citizens who know and care. No better opportunity can be devised for working out basic matters of living than a schoolroom group of 30 children and one teacher. Participation carries responsibility, and responsibility lived up to makes each child a good citizen of the school. The supply of democrats must come from the great supply of human material in the schools. Only if democracy is learned can the problem of war and peace be met where the people rule.

*Seek broad truths that stand out as principles of living.* Principles constitute the main outcomes of youth's learning experiences. To hold home and native land sacred directly grows from the right sort of education. People must live and let live. Liberty or freedom involves corresponding

responsibility by all its beneficiaries. One has to deserve his blessings or be a parasite. To accomplish such results is the heart of education, the distinctive task of the schools.

*Learn to deal with propaganda.* It is a difficult matter to control reports or talk that may do harm. Lies, half-truths, distortion, indirection, and innuendo loom large these days. They can be opposed only by well-informed, thinking people who work by principles. By practice with printed matter children can learn not to believe everything written, to look for motives of writers, to examine critically points advocated, to decide if they square with truth. The schools can perform a great service for adequate defense in this way.

*Set up straight thinking and vigorous attitudes on defense.* All actions in life and at school ought to shape up by the natural tendency to defense. There is no room for uncertainty, quibbling, half-way measures. Human rights must be preserved. Utmost preparedness is the best measure of protection for people who are patriotic and brave. Each youngster can learn this lesson so well that he never will fail his country in defense.

*Break down wrong attitudes toward war.* Too much attention is given war in school history. Nations are built by peaceful pursuits. They may be sustained at crises or turning points by war in conjunction with other efforts. A people must fight if there is no other way, but must know the cost and risks. A better way than war is a determined policy of preparedness in equipment and thinking that may obviate actual combat. School children can reach lasting convictions which serve well in time of stress.

*Idealize peace as a national goal.* Young people find the value of peace through working in an atmosphere of co-operation and peaceful surroundings. Real peace-lovers are such decidedly positive people that they make war most effectively when driven to it. Attitudes toward peace must be learned. It is the privilege of the schools to teach them by practice in precept and example.

*Treat education as growth in ways of thinking and living, to include "total defense."* Growth in human attributes and in their applications to problems of living is the two-fold task of all education. Points in a program of peace, or anything else, should be introduced early and kept long enough to be learned well. Children must learn to work for what they want. Even national attitudes and feelings are learned. A long-time, wide-range program of thinking peace, of hating war, and of preparing to guarantee the one even at the cost of the other is the part the schools can play in the picture of national defense.

The foregoing suggestions of education for peace are integral with all education. Growth is always gradual, so that there is no hurry. Since employment comes late, more years can be taken for school. Deliberation and search for truth can characterize all learning procedures.

Children learn what they experience and put into later practice the part of all they learn that seems to matter. The cycle is spiral and endless, exactly synonomous with rounded growth. In matters of peace and defense and war, the same rules hold as for all education.

A people versed in principles will ignore or isolate pressure groups seeking self-advantage. Conflicting issues clear up when the people are determined to understand and are set against being misled. Out of the schools should come a generation both able and willing to face conditions of peace or war as they appear.

We educate not mainly for today's crisis. The present generation of adults has to face and decide present issues. The greater crisis 20 or 30 years ahead will be the responsibility of youth now in school. Forty million young people devoted to the ideal of peace, clearly aware of the necessity for defense, and with eyes opened to the evils of war, but not afraid to take that course when all others fail, are America's hope in the uncertain future ahead. Today is time to press for education that is adequate for more trying times.

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WHY HIGH-SCHOOL COACHES SUCCEED OR FAIL . . . *and other significant features*

***SCHOOL and SOCIETY***

# JAMES R. KILLIAN, JR.: Humanistic Missileman

By MAXINE GREENE
School of Education, New York University

DR. JAMES RHYNE KILLIAN, JR., Special Presidential Assistant for Science and Technology, was appointed in the first moments of panicked awakening to the implications of Sputnik II. His name was put forward as a kind of talisman in a time of uninformed hassling and despair. First pictured as a "missile czar," he seemed to the public to be technician extraordinary, a professional Mr. Fixit called in to repair our satellite program and to save our reputation in the world. President of Massachusetts Institute of Technology since 1949, Dr. Killian has been most closely identified with the training of scientists and engineers. His name connoted technical wizardry to many laymen; but humanist educators, imagining themselves mowed down by polytechnics, were appalled.

It is almost ironic—and happily so—that this man, who became a public figure in the midst of "crash programs," should be the controlled, poetic being he is. He was actually appointed to perform the task of *concentrating* efforts in the fields of science, technology, and missiles. Concentration and integration have been his professional specialties since he became president of M.I.T. and, in some measure, before.

The special nature of his skills can be partly explained by the special character of M.I.T., that "unique academic organization with ties to private business, radiation research, radar, computation and missile guidance systems, and the whole range of weapons technology" (*Time*, Nov. 18, 1957). Dr. Killian's entire career has been devoted to the forging and explication of those ties. Immediately after his graduation from M.I.T. in 1926, with a degree in business and engineering administration, he became assistant editor of *Technology Review* at the institute. From 1930 to 1939, when he was appointed executive assistant to Dr. Karl Compton, then M.I.T. president, he was editor of the magazine.

A technical writer in a complex field like that of science and technology must have great facility in viewing the parts in relation to the whole and in articulating what he sees. Killian was an amateur in technology, informed, but in no sense a specialist in any single scientific area. He possessed, however, the ability to consider objectively a multiplicity of enterprises; and, when he became president, his organizing, articulating propensities found wide and fruitful expression in administration. But his inevitable detachment from the actual laboratory and classroom seems to have given a certain abstractness, a certain generality to his educational pronouncements, particularly when they relate to practices outside his field.

He was, none the less, one of the first to sound the danger signals on the Soviet technological advance and on the American tendency "to back away from the hard requirements of maintaining a position of growing strength and taut alertness."[1] His response to the emergency was a commitment to train a "new breed of administrator and engineer" and to develop principles of "fundamental, integrated education"[2] in order to accomplish that end.

A new kind of talent, he wrote in 1956,[3] is required by modern industry because of the prevalence of "systems" rather than separate machines. Missiles, computers, automation set-ups are all systems, and the engineers responsible for them must have, he says, not only a basic knowledge of science, but a deep enough knowledge of human beings to "direct successfully the many kinds of people required to make the systems work."

This represents, for Dr. Killian, a practical justification for the integrated education he wishes to provide. Just as important, however, is his belief in the "symbiotic relationship" between basic science, technology, social studies, and the humanities. In statement after state-

[1] "Scientific and Engineering Manpower," address, Nov. 14, 1956, to M.I.T. Club of New York, p. 1.
[2] "The Shortage Re-examined: Some Elements of a Grand Strategy for Augmenting Our Scientific & Engineering Manpower Resources," Sigma Xi address, Dec. 17, 1955.
[3] "Engineering as Science and Art," *National Parents Magazine*, June, 1956, pp. 8-9.

ment, he refers to the humanist's "vision of greatness," insists (sometimes defensively) on the fact that science and engineering are not "materialistic," that they have the highest standards, and that they are, in fact, part of the liberal arts constellation.

It appears that, for all his involvement in a scientific field, the humanities remain close to his heart. A schoolman with a literary bent, Dr. Killian's background is strong in the humanities. He was steeped in liberal arts at Trinity College (now Duke University), where he studied from 1921 to 1923 before transferring to M.I.T.; and, on occasion, his appeals to the liberal arts educators to understand the sciences have an almost wistful ring.

What may even be a kind of nostalgia shows itself in a tendency to romanticize his work, to speak of it (wishfully, perhaps) as an artistic enterprise. As its practitioner, he presents himself as an artist-educator in a field commonly thought to be remote from art. He has a way with words, an essentially poetic use of language and imagery, and these help him achieve his aesthetic effect. (He talks of anti-intellectualism in relation to the surface of our period as a "tropical fungus which blemishes the polished surfaces of optical glass." He compares the development of his institution with the "printing of a colored print" and his colleagues with "weavers of many brilliant strands.")

But he waxes particularly eloquent when he talks of the "sensitive couplings" between the sciences and the liberal arts. He sees no dichotomy between them and stresses the need for an equal partnership between scientific training and liberal arts training, in technical as well as in general education. His peculiarly integrative function becomes evident when his work is related to that of his predecessors, Dr. Richard MacLaurin and Dr. Compton. The first developed the engineering curriculum; the second, the scientific curriculum; and Dr. Killian completed the design with a humanities curriculum in the hope that M.I.T., as he says in two different speeches,[4] would become a "university polarized around science, engineering, and the arts."

A School of Humanities and Social Studies was established at M.I.T. early in Killian's continuing campaign to provide undergraduate programs emphasizing basic science and the humanities and to make graduate school the center of specialization. It is interesting to note that, in his effort to train engineers who are more than gadgeteers, Killian is, in a sense, recapturing the spirit of the first Mechanics' Institutes established in this country, schools concerned with providing the kind of general education that would enrich the cultural lives of mechanics. Technical education, as we know it today, was begun late in the 19th century; and Killian seems bent on recapturing the "cultural" dimension that was lost.

His devotion to integrated educational programs not only derives from a recognition of the need for versatile and adaptable engineers in an industrial plant that has outgrown specialized competences. He is as much concerned as is J. Robert Oppenheimer (whom he quotes with approval) with the development of social awareness and moral responsibility on the part of the scientist and engineer.[5] But Killian, far more than Oppenheimer, relies upon the humanities to provide the breadth of view and the depth of insight necessary for directing science to "humanistic" ends.

Dr. Killian is not alone in thinking that science and engineering, being neutral, must be consciously directed towards desirable ends. These ends must be chosen on ethical grounds and in terms of social and political norms. Killian, like many educators, sees in the humanities a reliable source of knowledge of the desirable and, in fact, names as "humanist" the spokesman for the humanities. He talks of the beauty, the historical perspectives revealed by the humanist—"his search for the first rate in living, the eternal questions he asks";[6] and it is possible that, in dealing with humanism and the humanities as a kind of generic unity, he gives way, on occasion, to his nostalgias. It is as if he is pleading for understanding, asking to be taken home again.

There is, too, a contradiction between Dr. Killian's eloquent talk of humanist ends and the present science emergency. What do the humanities have to offer when the goals of science are determined by the exigencies of national defense? Does not their contribution have to be precisely redefined? Dr. Killian's tones have been hushed since his new appointment. He, also, may be wondering what to say.

In the past he has insisted vigorously upon the need for providing an atmosphere for "uncommitted research." Long experience seems to have taught him that knowledge of the unknown cannot be secured by fiat. Like Admiral Rickover, Killian believes that the basic researcher requires freedom, that he must be insulated

[4] "The Obligations and Ideals of an Institute of Technology," 1949 inaugural address, p. 16, and Sigma Xi address, p. 17.
[5] Sigma Xi address, p. 21.
[6] *Ibid.*, p. 23.

from teams and committees if he is to do his work. The delicate question of relationship between government and researchers has yet to be resolved; but it would appear that Killian's familiarity with government teams and his acute consciousness of the relationship between basic research and missile development have not altered a basic commitment to the preservation of autonomy in colleges and universities.

He has been a consultant to the Federal government in many capacities: a member of the Science Advisory Committee; chairman, since 1955, of the President's Board of Consultants on Foreign Intelligence Activities; chairman, for five years, of the Science Advisory Panel for the Department of the Army; and, for two years, chairman of the Technological Capabilities Panel. Obviously, he has become well acquainted with problems resident in political pressures, investigations, subsidies, and associated controls. His skill at balancing forces and resolving dichotomies is urgently needed now and may have great meaning if allowed full play.

At his inauguration in 1949, he pointed prophetically to the dangers implicit in the cold war, particularly the danger to civil rights. And he went on to say: "The university, more than any institution, resolves the dichotomy between the individual and the institutionalized aspects of modern life. It is an environment where the dignity of man is more important than the pomp of organization. It is the sanctuary of the free mind, and the mind which is not free profanes it." There is no reason to doubt that he upholds this belief despite—and perhaps because of—the "sense of urgency" he describes in the scientific world today. In emphasizing the significance of freedom within the university, he is in agreement with spokesmen for higher education like Pusey and Griswold and, too, with the National Science Foundation. The foundation places great reliance upon uncontrolled research in the university centers and stresses, as Killian does not, the fact that Federal grants should carry a minimum of restrictions on scientists' freedom.

Dr. Killian remains interested, above all, in scientists with the "imagination and the trained creative power to make discoveries and generate the new concepts which advance science."[7] He has been spotlighting the scientific lag for several years and has put special emphasis on what he calls the shortage of manpower. He makes the point, however, that this is not a quantitative shortage but a shortage in the quality of scientists available. We lack, he says, "educated talent and trained skills";[8] and this lack can only be made up if we do some hard educational thinking and spend, of course, a good deal more money on seeing to it that we have "high intellectual talent adequately educated and in the right place."

He has called on several occasions for a large-scale national scholarship program to attract 200,000 gifted high-school graduates who now are not motivated or cannot afford to go to college. It is significant that he does not specify potential scientists but talks of "all our top talent, regardless of the career they choose." Characteristically, he goes outside his field in the belief that the proper encouragement of competence will provide all the special skills we need.

Dr. Killian was chairman of the Subcommittee on School Goals of the White House Conference in 1954-56; and, in that capacity, he was the recipient of much first-hand information regarding the problems facing American schools. He responded to this by articulating in a wide context his respect for individual differences, his concern with the values of creativity and the values associated with the search for truth. The laboratory method, for him, has meaning in all departments and on all levels of a school devoted to the enrichment of life, even as the spirit of scientific research has a stimulating effect on the total educational enterprise.

When he talks of a "scientific environment," he is referring to the kind of environment that can liberate all man's intellectual powers, no matter what they may be. When he talks of educational aims, he is concerned with their diversity and with the need for ordering them. "Our schools," he said in the Sigma Xi address (and, in almost identical words, in a magazine article[9]), "should be designed to help all children, and the needs of children of different abilities, different backgrounds, and different aspirations. But we do need to come to a better understanding of the importance of priorities and the necessity of discriminating choices so that we can temper our prodigality of aims by sobering considerations of quality, social and intellectual needs and achievable goals."[10]

When it comes to secondary schools, it is worth remarking that Killian never talks of transforming them into polytechnic schools, never suggests that we ape the Soviet model, never even hints that we give top priority to scientific subjects. He wants simply to see a "proper emphasis" on science, an understanding of its in-

[7] Sigma Xi address, *op. cit.*, p. 7.
[8] M.I.T. Club address, *op. cit.*, p. 5.
[9] "What Should Our Schools Accomplish?" *Educational Horizons*, Spring, 1957, pp. 74-78.
[10] Sigma Xi, *op. cit.*, p .11.

tellectual requirements and its importance to society. While demanding that the schools "shore up the sagging emphasis on science," he insists that the other fields not be neglected.

Part of the solution he envisages is an upgrading and modernizing of the content in science courses and the provision of better teaching materials, texts, and visual aids. In his Presidential Report of 1957, he speaks proudly of the Physical Science Study Project at M.I.T., a group drawn together to plan a new approach to secondary school teaching of physics. The educational motion picture and various kinds of experimental equipment are being tested there; a text is being written. Describing the work, Killian says once again that physics is approached as a "cultural subject rather than an exercise in technology."[11]

He wants to fill the ranks of science teachers "with teachers possessing a grasp of science and the perception to identify and stimulate youngsters with the bent and capacity for science." He never, however, seems to come to terms with the question presented some time ago by James B. Conant in his "On Understanding Science," the question of whether young people should encounter error and the unexpected in their school laboratories or whether they should follow the paths already explored. Related to what may be a glossing over a nagging pedagogical problem is his tendency to ignore the role of mathematics, which such men as Alfred North Whitehead thought to be the essential if scientific creativeness was to be achieved.

This does not in any sense detract from Dr. Killian's dominant concern with "excellence," with the values of rigorous thinking. He feels that the "fatty degeneration" in American education is due to an "aversion to rigorous thinking" rather than to any particular method utilized in the schools. This is the fault of the parents, he says, the fault of all those who make a virtue of anti-intellectualism. He would foster a respect for hard intellectual labor, a respect for creative thinking, for the unending adventure of research and exploration; and he would do this in the interests of human welfare, which he leaves to the humanities to define.

A reconstruction of attitudes towards science itself depends on this respect for intellectual endeavor. Killian has expressed some alarm at the antagonism towards science, a hostility rooted partly in a tendency to associate science with destructive weapons and partly in the idea that science is destructive of human values. This hostility may have abated in the current emergency, now that national pride is hurt by Soviet prowess; but there remains the tendency, revealed in the 1956 Purdue poll and in Margaret Mead's study of high-school students' opinions, to think of science as evil and mysterious, difficult and dehumanizing.

There is never a hint of "crash program" thinking in Dr. Killian's statements; and he makes a continual and impassioned effort to combat intellectual snobbery and separatism, wherever they appear. Whether he is appealing for increased concern with science in the liberal arts colleges (which remain the best sources of scientific manpower), for the inclusion of liberal arts within scientific curricula, or simply for the recognition of the humanist potentiality of science, he is stressing interrelationships—particularly those between beauty, the vision of the good life, and the work of the scientist. We can only hope he continues to raise his voice in an insistence that science and technology be justified by the contribution they make to mankind's health and security. Conceiving science in this manner, he can well speak of an "endless frontier."

And the frontier, he thinks, can be best explored by means of a comprehensive school, a vertical and interrelated structure embracing the arts, the social sciences, and the humanities, and "built around science and social technology." This vision of unity and creativity would seem to be the most stirring contribution of the man now delegated to restore our scientific self-respect.

[11] "Report of the President," p. 21.

## RECENT *Publications*

**The following are 1958 editions, except where indicated otherwise**

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*(Continued on page 142)*

# Improved Status of Land-Grant Colleges

By G. D. HUMPHREY
President, University of Wyoming

GOOD NEWS for colleges and universities, in times when higher education seems to be faced with a crisis every day, appears in a report made by the University of Wyoming. This document shows that state legislative appropriations are going up among most land-grant institutions. It points out, however, that the higher amounts of state monies probably have been caused by advances in inflationary costs and increased needs brought on by higher enrollments.

The University of Wyoming made the report at the direction of the American Association of Land-Grant Colleges and State Universities for study by association presidents during their November, 1957, meeting in Denver. Of the 71 institutional members of the association, 59 replied in questionnaire form so that the report could be tabulated and analyzed.

Of the institutions who supplied information, 18 are land-grant colleges or state universities in states where another school is known as the "university of the state." Twenty-eight are sometimes called "multiple-purpose institutions," since they are combined land-grant colleges, state universities, and universities of the state. Three, although members of the association, are not land-grant schools. The report also contains information about 10 Negro schools.

According to the report, legislative increases have been, generally, in rather substantial amounts. Increases varied from six to seven per cent over the last appropriation year for colleges budgeting on an annual basis and from one to 35% over appropriations for the two preceding years for those institutions budgeting on a biennial basis. Two schools reported decreases in appropriations for general operations, however, and one school listed a decrease for Agricultural Extension work.

Although much public opinion indicates that most educational institutions are raising fees, the study showed that about half of the members of the association did not raise uniform student fees over 1956-57, although the average for all colleges in the association was higher for 1957-58. Such charges include payments by students for tuition and fees for health services, activities, unions, yearbooks, library, and course costs.

The largest single raise in 1957-58 in resident uniform fees was 92.6% at a southwestern land-grant college. Largest raise in nonresident fees was 58.8% at a Negro college.

With the exception of one Negro college, all schools participating in the study reported salary raises for 1957-58. Amounts varied rather extensively from school to school and from group to group. Average raises varied from fractions of one per cent to increases running to 20, 25, 30% and more.

Generally speaking, the Negro schools raised salary levels less than the white colleges. And, also in general terms, full professors on the nine-to-10-month basis received larger average advances at multiple-purpose universities than at land-grant colleges. On the 11-to-12-month basis, however, the situation was reversed for both full professors and associate professors.

Another common idea that has gained ground in recent months has to do with difficulties nonresident students are having toward acceptance in institutions of higher learning. The report shows that land-grant institutions, for the most part, are not yet creating barriers to such students. Forty of the 59 schools that returned questionnaires said that they do not now restrict the number of nonresident students who may register. The restriction rate is higher, however, among multiple-purpose universities and non-land-grant institutions than at land-grant colleges and Negro colleges.

About half of the members of the association do not have higher admission requirements for nonresident than for resident students. Only 15 of the 59 institutions have revised their entrance requirements recently, primarily to make admissions more restrictive. The report concludes that such facts indicate that members of the association, generally, are not now experiencing any great difficulty with nonresident enrollment.

The questionnaire, on which the report was based, contained five questions concerning public junior colleges—their administrative control, state support, and co-ordination. The questionnaire defined the "public junior colleges" as two-year technical institutes, two-year centers, community colleges, and the like, where regular students receive college credit.

Eleven of the universities and colleges reported that they do not have schools classified as public junior colleges, but 35 institutions reported that there are such colleges in their states. In 25 states the junior colleges receive legislative support for appropriations; 10 do not have legislative support.

Where legislative appropriations are made, method of appropriating funds is directly to the junior colleges in 16 states; to the state university or land-grant college for the benefit of junior colleges in five states; and distributed through the department of education, local school districts, or through other means in four states.

Method of organization varied, too, by state. In 25 states the public junior colleges are separate entities; in six states they are organized administratively with the land-grant college or state university; in four states they are partially independent; and in three states there are other administrative devices being used.

Of the 35 states with junior colleges, 11 institutions reported a co-ordinated organization of some sort to provide a centralized governing board. Twenty states have no method at present. Four institutions did not answer the question.

# Educational Progress in the New Japan

By **RAYMOND WALTERS**
President Emeritus, University of Cincinnati

"DESPITE THE MISERIES and destitution which accompany the economic, social and political recovery of Japan, the majority of our people are well aware that only through good education can a truly democratic nation be established. They are determined to fulfill this lofty mission." Thus did Prof. Masanosuke Tsuzaki, dean of the Engineering College, Ibaraki University, and visiting lecturer at Tokyo University, summarize the spirit and the objective of the new Japan while in the United States recently as leader of the Japanese Technical Training Development Team.

I had met Prof. Tsuzaki at Tokyo when lecturing at Japanese universities in 1949 as an educational representative of the Department of the Army (SCAP) during the American occupation period. On his visit to the University of Cincinnati some weeks ago, the eminent Japanese educator kindly gave me a copy of his committee report on technical training in his homeland (published in July, 1957); and he permitted me to quote from it for the benefit of readers of SCHOOL AND SOCIETY.

The point of great significance, Prof. Tsuzaki emphasized, is the confidence of the Japanese that "the new education in Japan is achieving an epoch-making reform and is on its way to rebirth in all phases." Encouraging progress is being made toward attaining the reforms initiated through the new Constitution of Japan, promulgated in 1946, through the Fundamental Law of Education passed by the Diet in 1947, and through other related laws down to the University Control Law, now under preparation.

The four resultant changes may be summed up as follows:

1. The character of education in Japan has been completely transformed. Its guiding principle is now in the direction of humanism, liberalism, democracy, and peaceful spirit. Control of the schools has been shifted from its former national basis and is now localized. Faculties remain in academic charge of the national, prefectural, and private universities; in this area of higher education, proposed changes as to control are under consideration.

2. The earlier complicated school system, a product of European influence, has been unified in a 6-3-3-4 system much like that of the United States. The Japanese call it "the open-door principle." Education is free to all capable students, women as well as men, and there are now coeducational institutions.

3. The old provision for uniform textbooks throughout the nation is gradually being replaced by local freedom in the choice of textbooks. "Teachers are encouraged to use textbooks as only a part of instructional material, to respect the activities and concerns of the students and not to drive them to memorizing and cramming of informational knowledge." Specific community needs are taken into account in the new courses of study.

4. As to decentralization, the controlling power over education on and below the upper secondary level has been transferred from the national Ministry of Education to local boards of education. The Ministry of Education is presently an administrative agency, rendering technical and professional guidance toward promoting education and culture.

In their aim to advance the economic status of the nation,[1] the Japanese are deeply concerned about science and technical education. It was to obtain first-hand information about American methods in these areas that the development committee, composed of six theoretical and practical experts under Prof. Tsuzaki, visited engineering colleges and institutes in various sections of the United States. Their trip of six weeks was sponsored by the Japan Productivity Center, Tokyo. At present, the Japanese system provides for technical education in technical high schools; in technical short-term colleges having courses of two years or three years; in institutes of technology requiring at least four years; and in graduate courses in universities which lead to the master's and doctor's degrees.

Prof. Tsuzaki supplied me with the most recent tabulation of enrollments in Japanese universities covering the academic year which ended in April, 1957. Figures for the four-year institutions follow: In 72 national universities, there were 189,702 students, of whom 28,232 were recorded as graduate or technological students; in 33 prefectural universities, there were 25,707 students, of whom 2,700 were taking graduate or technical work; in 123 private universities, the attendance was 331,-844 students, of whom 29,100 were graduate or technological students. In all, the 228 universities had 547,253 students, of whom 60,032 were graduate or technological students. The report shows that 268 short-term colleges and universities had a total of 77,114 students, of whom 6,866 were taking largely short technological courses.

[1] The population of Japan, which has been increasing at the rate of a million a year for several years, is now approximately 90,000,000.

SPECIAL CONFERENCE REPORTS

# PHILOSOPHY AND EDUCATION

TRADITIONALLY, education has been a major interest of philosophers, but in recent decades many have retreated from the world of school and society into the safer world of linguistics. There are signs that the retreat is over and that philosophers in America have a renewed interest in public issues. Several years ago, the Pacific division of the American Philosophical Association demanded a larger role for philosophy in the education of teachers. In recent years the Creighton Club, the philosophical society of upstate New York, has had an active committee on philosophy and education, and the society has established contact with key figures in The State University of New York in order to promote an increased function for philosophy in public education. Prof. Joseph Leese, at State College in Albany, is one of the educators who have been exploring the possibility of introducing logic courses for superior students in the high schools.

The most significant indication thus far of the renewed ties between philosophy and education may be found in the fact that over 200 professional philosophers attended a meeting at Harvard University devoted to that topic. This meeting was one of the sessions of the 1957 gathering of the Eastern Division, American Philosophical Association, at Harvard, Dec. 27-29, 1957. A committee, chaired by Prof. Charles Hendel, Yale University, and including members from all regional divisions of the Association, presented a preliminary report on the graduate education of philosophers as teachers; the contributions of philosophy in teacher education; and the introduction of philosophy courses in high schools. Logic and ethics were the philosophical subjects most often mentioned as appropriate for secondary schools and perhaps for general adult education. Quite a few of the professors recognized that it would be exceedingly difficult to justify certain of the undertakings currently passing under the name of philosophy, excepting in the context of narrowly specialized interests. The mere clarification of linguistic usage has a certain value, but as Prof. John H. Randall, Jr., Columbia University, once remarked, it would be most unfortunate if philosophy has liberated itself from Biblical dogma only to become a slave to the Oxford Universal Dictionary. One older contributor to the discussion called for renewed attention to the "philosophy of life," and, while the term has a 19th-century flavor, many participants were apparently in sympathy with the general intention to establish new ties between technical philosophy and the decision-making activities of the common life.

Much discussion of the reform of graduate degrees is taking place in several academic fields, and the philosophers share this interest. One had

the impression that, while many fear that attention to pedagogical problems may "water down" the graduate education of philosophers, almost all recognize that an academic career is the obvious destiny of most graduate students in philosophy and that some formal preparation to meet the problems of the academic life might be justified. A call for interdepartmental collaboration in the reform of graduate education, however, received little support at the Harvard meeting. No formal decisions were made there, and the whole purpose was exploratory.

One may suggest that, while logic must provide many of the techniques in education for enlightened decisions, ethics will provide much of the subject matter and perhaps that special stress should be placed upon social ethics. If sovereignty resides in the people, then they should learn to think critically, not only in making their own decisions, but in judging those made by their representatives.

ROBERT F. CREEGAN
*State University of New York College for Teachers, Albany*

# THE CHRISTIAN COLLEGE TODAY

THE CHRISTIAN COLLEGE is our best chance for greatness in an age when "sputnik hysteria" threatens to fashion America into the image of the Soviet Union. This was the conclusion of Dr. D. Elton Trueblood, professor of philosophy at Earlham College (Richmond, Ind.), when he addressed the annual meeting of the Methodist Church's Commission on Christian Higher Education in Cincinnati, Jan. 10-11. The 137-member commission of educators was formed by the 1956 General Conference of The Methodist Church to direct the 1956-60 quadrennial emphasis on higher education.

Dr. Trueblood said that the Christian college is "not trying for ostentation, but for excellence." Surely, he said, "we want good science, but that is nothing new to the Christian college." America must resist the temptation to channel all her resources into the technological race with Russia.

Bishop Paul N. Garber, Richmond, Va., chairman of the Commission on Christian Higher Education, called upon the educators to redouble their efforts to reach the spiritual and financial goals for Methodist higher education set by the General Conference. The schools and colleges of the church, he said, can do far more for the security of the nation and the future of mankind by giving the Christian answer to students' basic questions than "by changing over to the now suddenly glorified Russian scientific utilitarian emphasis in higher education."

Dr. John O. Gross, Nashville, Tenn, director of the Commission and general secretary of the Methodist Board of Education's Division of Educational Institutions, presented the report of his staff which declared that in reaching America's scientific and technological goal, the nation's educational life must not be "sovietized." The statement said:

We need something more than one-track minds steeped in the language and skills of science. We want people with capacity to assume the awesome spiritual responsibilities that face the Western world. We need the sort of education that unifies moral and social responsibility with technical competence. Our Christian faith tells us that human beings are of primary importance. We must not subordinate our education to the aims of military efficiency and thus prepare future generations to inherit the ant heap. Ancient Sparta still stands to warn against the danger of a highly specialized military machine stifling the higher arts of civilization.

The commission reported that Methodists gave about $6,000,000 for current operations of their colleges during 1957, an increase of nearly 27% over 1956. Fifty-six of the denomination's 100 annual conferences adopted the goal of $1.30 per member for the current support of colleges and Wesley Foundations, while five conferences pledged more than the $1.30 goal. In addition, many annual conferences are engaged in campaigns to raise $28,000,000 for capital funds for colleges and Wesley Foundations (Methodist student work on state and private university campuses).

WOODROW A. GEIER
*General Conference Commission on Christian Higher Education*
*Nashville, Tenn.*

*In April 12th issue*

**MERIT-RATING CONTROVERSY**

**A SPECIAL SECTION**

*SCHOOL and SOCIETY*

# Stressing the Teaching of Science

THE SCIENTISTS AND ENGINEERS, together with their military counterparts, have turned educator and have begun to prescribe for the nation's scholastic sicknesses. With the changing international scene as a backdrop, they bring forward all kinds of suggestions, from a simple stress on the teaching of science and mathematics in the schools and colleges to blueprints for the reconstruction of the entire American school system. These vary in quality from reasonable remedies to partially cooked proposals.

The renowned physicist, Dr. Edward Teller, proposed in January a plan to the Senate Labor Committee whereby the salaries of especially able elementary and high-school teachers of science would be doubled by means of a Federal stipend. This is probably one of the examples of what serious educators mean when they resist the suggestions for emphasizing science in the schools in order to catch up with alleged Soviet superiority in science and technology. Such ideas as that of Dr. Teller are concerned with one problem only and not with the educational system as a unit.

Those working at educational tasks and the thinking laymen must, rather, take more seriously the forthright statements by qualified students of America's educational problems. It is good to reflect on the ideas presented by Pres. Hollis L. Caswell, Teachers College, Columbia University, in his annual report for 1956-57. Dr. Caswell feels that, "if we permit fear of Russia's material strength to determine the emphasis given to our curriculum, we most certainly shall not have an education which meets the broader range of educational needs of our country and our people."

True, America needs more scientists and engineers, but it also requires, according to Dr. Caswell, leaders in politics, foreign service, social welfare, and education. An insufficient number of good leaders in these fields "may be quite as disastrous for the future of our country as a shortage of scientists and technologists." This is a statesmanlike view of the situation, one which has greater validity and promise for the years to come.

The acceptance or rejection of the idea of transfer of training as an established fact in psychology is something for the experts to debate about. There is little doubt of our right to expect rigorously trained scientists to think along scientific lines, in and out of their recognized fields of competence. If scientists cannot apply the scientific method except in the laboratory, then it is reasonable to raise more than eyebrows when they use their prestige to make the public believe that the road to national survival and salvation is mainly, if not solely, through a stress upon the teaching of science and the training of scientists.—W.W.B.


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## JOBS AND STUDENTS' GRADES

STUDENTS working more than 12 hours a week have somewhat lower grades than those working fewer hours or not at all, it was revealed in a survey conducted at Illinois Institute of Technology. More than 100 students, representing a cross-section of the student body, reported their work activity for a typical one-week period in the school year, according to William D. Diemer, I.I.T. mechanics instructor, who made the survey.

Half of the employed students worked more than 12 hours a week and one-fourth worked over 20 hours a week. Thirty-five per cent of these students were employed from four to 40 hours a week, or an average of 15 hours. The proportion of working students among seniors was 50%, slightly higher than the 30% figure for employed underclassmen.

A light class load—11 to 15 hours—was carried by one-fourth of all students who did not work and by 34% of students who did. Half of the students who

are not employed and 60% of employed students carried a medium class load of 16 to 18 hours. Only six per cent of the employed students and 25% of the others carried a heavy class load of 19 to 21 hours.

Students working more than 20 hours each week had significantly higher scores on college entrance examinations than those who worked less or not at all. However, students working fewer than 20 hours per week have slightly lower intelligence test scores than non-working students.

Students working more than 12 hours a week spent an average of 20 hours a week in study, while those working less than 12 hours or not working at all spent an average of 28 hours a week in study.

## PHYSICAL GROWTH OF MENTALLY RETARDED CHILDREN

THIRD-GRADE CHILDREN of low intelligence who are without physical handicaps are about as tall, heavy, and strong as their brighter brethren, according to Prof. Herbert Klausmeier, School of Education, University of Wisconsin. They have more permanent teeth at third-grade age than children of average and high intelligence, and their total maturity, as assessed from x-rays of the hand and wrist, nearly equals that of children of average and high intelligence. His findings, which contradict conclusions drawn from some previous research, were based on intensive study of 120 Madison and Milwaukee boys and girls of low (55-80), average (90-110), and high intelligence (115 and up). He stated:

Apparently the physical structure and strength of the low IQ children lend themselves to guidance and improvement, but the ability to do abstract thinking—except at a very low level—does not. The development and refinement of motor skills might receive prominent emphasis in the curriculum for most of these low IQ children throughout third-grade age.

The intellectual achievement patterns are very different from those of physical growth. The highest score made by any low IQ child in reading was lower than the lowest made by a child of average or high intelligence.

While there was slight overlapping in arithmetic and language between the highest low IQ children and the lowest average IQ children, the extent of differences is of great educational significance as is illustrated in the average or mean scores in reading: low IQ boys 22.10, equivalent to 80 months of age; average IQ boys 58.75, equivalent to 104 months of age; and high IQ boys 73.10, equivalent to 116 months of age.

Thus, when ability to think in abstractions—words, numbers, and other symbols—is involved, the low IQ children are markedly different.

Two further findings are significant. The groups of low IQ boys and girls are as variable as are those of average and high IQ in the achievement areas; that is, the low IQ boys and girls differ from one another as much as do those in the average and high IQ groups. Also, the low, average, and high IQ children are equally variable within themselves in the achievement areas. Though at a considerably lower level of achievement, the low IQ child shows as much difference among his own levels in reading, arithmetic, and language achievement as does the high IQ child. Girls of all IQ levels vary more within themselves than do boys. Prof. Klausmeier pointed out:

One of the unique features of this research project is the cooperativeness of the children, their parents, teachers, child study staffs, and school administrators. Only through such cooperation can a more factual basis for the improvement of learning for children of all abilities be established.

It is interesting to note that the schools are producing reading and other achievements in line with the intelligence levels of these children of third-grade age.

Klausmeier is continuing the study to check his present findings and to measure efficiency in learning arithmetic. His research is supported by a grant from the U.S. Office of Education and assistance from the University Graduate School.

## SECOND ASIAN SEMINAR ON CRIME PREVENTION

SOCIAL DEFENSE experts from 13 Asian countries attended a seminar this past fall in Tokyo on the prevention of crime and the treatment of offenders. Organized by the United Nations in co-operation with the government of Japan, the meeting covered questions of juvenile delinquency, prostitution, treatment of prisoners, and training and research in social defense. Discussion of juvenile delinquency centered on its prevention in urban areas and the possibility of combining community development programs with the prevention of juvenile crime in rural areas. Regarding the treatment of offenders, the experts paid special attention to the possible integration of prison labor in the national economy and ways of introducing standard minimum rules for the treatment of prisoners. Proposals for an Asian regional institute for training and research in social defense also were discussed, as well as technical assistance offered by the United Nations in this field in the form of fellowships and expert advice to governments.

In the past few years, seminars on crime prevention have been held in Rio de Janeiro for Latin-American states, in Cairo for Arab states, and in Rangoon where the first seminar for Asian countries was held. (UNESCO)

## Educational Ticker Tape . . .

*(Continued from page 122)*

India's 14 states, plans under the grant call for establishment of 60 extension training centers throughout the country. Two centers are planned for the training of educated young men in skilled trades to qualify them for managerial and supervisory positions in small industrial enterprises.

### COLOMBIA'S ATTACK ON ILLITERACY

A full-scale attack on illiteracy aimed at teaching 500,000 adults each year to read and write is planned by the government of Colombia in its educational reforms for 1958. The government will organize 5,000 special classes for adults and will award prizes in competitions for the best and quickest methods of literacy teaching.

The plans include proposals for solving the problem of lack of schools for over 1,000,000 children of school age and the improvement of teacher training courses and

general school curricula. A system for over-all supervision of education is outlined which at present is being studied in its budgetary implications. (UNESCO)

**NEWS IN BRIEF . . .**

**Junior-college community-service programs** will be investigated in a new research project directed by James W. Reynolds, professor of junior college education, University of Texas. The U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare has granted $50,000 for the 18-month study, which will attempt to discover "definitive criteria for an accurate description of junior-college community-service programs through an analysis of junior-college programs with community-service characteristics and geographical communities served by those junior colleges." . . . **John A. Hannah,** president, Michigan State University, is conducting a comprehensive survey of the University of the Philippines at the request of Carlos Garcia, recently inaugurated president of the Republic of the Philippines. President Garcia's request indicated that he hopes to revise the university's educational program to make it more responsive to the needs of the Filipino people, something on the pattern of the American land-grant colleges, of which Michigan State was the pioneer. Pres. Hannah's associates in the undertaking are William T. Middlebrook, vice-president for business administration, University of Minnesota, and Floyd W. Reeves, distinguished professor of education, Michigan State.

**Australia's First Nuclear Engineering Course:** New South Wales University of Technology began Feb. 26 Australia's first course in nuclear engineering. It includes physics, reactor theory, chemistry, metallurgy, radiation, economics, and engineering. The course, founded on advances made in nuclear physics in the last two decades, features as lecturers some of Australia's leading nuclear physicists and atomic scientists . . . **Driver perception**—clear understanding of what you see before you as you drive a car—is now being taught in classrooms with a new teaching aid developed by New York University's Center for Safety Education and Shell Oil Co. The teaching aid is a filmstrip, "Perception of Driving Hazards," consisting of 30 color photographs of actual traffic hazards as seen from the driver's viewpoint. These are flashed on a screen for a few seconds each, and students are then asked to spot the hazards and explain how they would avoid becoming involved in accidents.

**Yale Reinstates Major in Geography:** Yale University has reinstated, after a period of about 30 years, a standard major in geography which will take its place along with the 47 other major courses of study offered to undergraduates. While the new major may never attract such large numbers of students as the majors in English, history, and American studies, Chairman Karl J. Pelzer of the department of geography believes that a small group of students will enroll in view of the number of queries his department has received. The major has come about through increased interest in geography courses taken in recent years by Yale undergraduates as part of their studies in other majors and is designed to attract students planning to enter governmental agency work as cartographers, intelligence men, or members of the Departments of the Interior and Agriculture . . . **Harvard's First Dormitory for Women Graduate Students:** Harvard University will open its first dormitory for women graduate students next fall. The building will provide space for women of the graduate schools of design, divinity, education, law, medicine, public administration, and public health.

**A Traveling Seminar in June** to London, Copenhagen, Moscow, and Warsaw, including a weekend in Paris, has been announced by Teachers College, Columbia University, and will be conducted (for four points credit) by Profs. Goodwin Watson and George Z. F. Bereday. The travel-study program will cost approximately $1,600 (including tuition). Further information may be obtained from Prof. Watson at Teachers College . . . **Atlanta's New Fellowships:** Atlanta (Ga.) University has announced a new fellowship program. Each fellow will be given a grant of $1,000 for the nine-month academic year. Students may take graduate or professional study in biology, chemistry, economics, English, French, history, mathematics, political science, sociology, anthropology, the social sciences, social work, library service, education, or business administration. The fellowships are designed for those students who have a bachelor's degree and have not yet begun formal graduate or professional work. Applications must be filed with the registrar on or before May 1, 1958, and the selected candidates will be notified on June 1.

**NEW POSTS . . .**

**E. Glenn Featherston,** Acting Assistant Commissioner, U. S. Office of Education, appointed Assistant Commissioner for State and Local School Systems . . . **Eli E. Cohen,** director and vice-president for counselling, Executive Job Counsellors, is now executive secretary, National Child Labor Committee, New York City . . . **James A. Crabtree,** head, department of public health practice, Graduate School of Public Health, University of Pittsburgh (Pa.), appointed dean of the Graduate School . . . **Promotions at Clarkson College of Technology** (Potsdam, N. Y.): Lowell W. Herron to deanship of the college; Edward McHugh to deanship of the faculty; Herman L. Shulman to directorship, Division of Research and Industrial Service; to chairmanships, Donald G. Stillman (School of Arts, Science, and Business Administration) and G. Whitman Reed (School of Engineering).

**Henry L. Woodward,** chairman, department of music, Carleton College (Northfield, Minn.), named acting dean of the college to succeed Frank R. Kille . . . **Rollin L. Perry,** assistant dean, College of Arts and Sciences, Cornell University, promoted to associate dean, effective July 1 . . . **Cyril F. Hager,** assistant director, Educational Planning Staff, Foreign Service Institute of the U. S. State

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***Please complete and return this ballot not later than March 31, 1958***

## BALLOT

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Please place a check mark before *three* of the following candidates who have been nominated for election as Trustees of your Society for the four-year terms following April 1, 1958.

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- ☐ **Theodore A. Distler,** executive director, Association of American Colleges
- ☐ **Frank R. Kille,** associate commissioner, New York State Education Department
- ☐ **Frederick Raubinger,** commissioner of education, New Jersey State Department of Education
- ☐ **Raymond Walters,** president emeritus, University of Cincinnati
- ☐ **Roscoe L. West,** president emeritus, New Jersey State Teachers College, Trenton

In the event you cannot attend the Annual Meeting, which is expected to convene April 7, 1958, and wish Stanley Lehrer, managing editor, to serve as your proxy, check here ..... ☐

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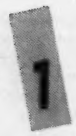

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Department, appointed director of the program in liberal education for adults to be conducted throughout Pennsylvania during the next five years by the Pennsylvania State University . . . **Benjamin Fine,** education editor, *New York Times,* since 1941, named dean, Yeshiva University's new Graduate School of Education (New York City). Abe Gelbart, professor of mathematics, Syracuse (N. Y.) University, also will join the staff of Yeshiva as director, Institute of Mathematics, effective July 1.

**Sigmund Neumann,** professor of government and social sciences, Wesleyan University (Middletown, Conn.), named director, Honors College . . . **Bruce B. Mason** of the Institute of Government and Public Affairs, University of Illinois, appointed director, Illinois Citizenship Clearing House . . . **H. LaMarr Rice,** assistant to the president, Denison University (Granville, Ohio), promoted to directorship of development, a newly created office . . .

**John D. Russell,** chancellor and executive secretary, New Mexico Board of Educational Finance, has accepted an administrative post at New York University. Beginning April 1, Dr. Russell will plan the creation of two new units at NYU: an Office of Institutional Research, which is to develop studies to improve the university's operational structure, and a Center for the Study and Development of Higher Education, which will offer a comprehensive program of research and training in the administration of higher education.

**Paul W. Kurtz,** associate professor of philosophy, Trinity College (Hartford, Conn.), appointed U. S. director, *International Bibliography of Philosophy,* which is published quarterly in Paris for the International Institute of Philosophy. This journal is the only one of its kind offering objective abstracts of all books published in philosophy and cognate fields on a world-wide basis. The U. S. center receives between 300 and 400 books a year, abstracts of which are parceled out to philosophers representing all points of view throughout the country . . . **R. Freeman Butts,** director, Division of the Foundations of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, named the first William F. Russell Professor in the Foundations of Education at Teachers College . . .

**William Van Grimes, Jr., and Bernard P. Lebeau** appointed instructors in philosophy and French, respectively, Washington College (Chestertown, Md.).

### RECENT DEATHS . . .

**Joseph E. Avent,** 79, retired professor of educational psychology, University of Tennessee, and a former president, Martha Washington College (Abingdon, Va.), Feb. 11 . . . **Rudolf Neuberger,** 68, founder and president, The Tuition Plan, Inc., Feb. 15 . . . **Laurence M. Sears,** 61, professor of philosophy and political theory, Mills College (Oakland, Calif.), Feb. 15.

## RECENT PUBLICATIONS

*(Continued from page 134)*

COOPER, HOMER E., *Education for a Free Society: "Freedom College" and Other Essays on Education,* edited by Clara C. Cooper, pp. 78, 1957, $2.00. YOUNG, ELEANOR P. (editor), *Shakespeare for Young Actors,* pp. 284, 1957, $4.50. Exposition Press, New York 16.

DIXON, J. G., *et al. Landmarks in the History of Physical Education.* Pp. 218. Routledge & Kegan Paul, London E.C.4. 1957. 21s.

DUPREE, A. HUNTER, *Science in the Federal Government: A History of Policies and Activities to 1940,* pp. 460, 1957, $7.50; POLLARD, HUGH M., *Pioneers of Popular Education, 1760-1850,* pp. 297, 1957, $5.50; SPITZ, LEWIS W., *Conrad Celtis: The German Arch-Humanist,* pp. 142, 1957, $3.25. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass.

MALLINSON, VERNON. *An Introduction to the Study of Comparative Education.* Pp. 249. Macmillan Co., New York 11. 1957. $3.50 (cloth).

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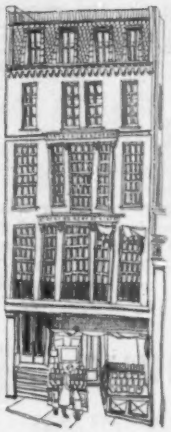

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